The following papers were read:-

1. On the Geographical Distribution of Reptiles. By Dr. Albert Günther.

It was with great pleasure I read Mr. Sclater's paper 'On the Geographical Distribution of the Members of the Class Aves,' published in the 'Proceedings of the Linnæan Society,' February 1858. And again, in personal interviews with my friend on similar subjects I had often the satisfaction to agree with him in results he had gained from another part of the animal kingdom. But such gratifying results as we find in the aforesaid paper can only be obtained, not merely by an extended knowledge of the whole animal kingdom, but by a complete knowledge of the details of a separated portion of it; and the reason why all the attempts at a general account of the geographical distribution of animals are not satisfactory enough for the naturalist, is to be found in the circumstance, that the authors were not acquainted in the same degree with every part of the subject treated, as also in our limited knowledge of zoology. Thus I may follow the example of Mr. Sclater and give for the present only an account of the geographical distribution of those animals, to the knowledge of which especially I have latterly devoted myself; and often referring to that paper, I shall show how far I can agree with the general views contained therein, and whether these parts of the natural kingdom give us a division of the earth's surface into the same natural provinces.

PART I.

ON THE GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE SNAKES.

Schlegel, as he first founded philosophical views in the knowledge of Snakes, first gave an essay on their geographical distribution, showing the then most possibly exact locality of the species. however only pointed out the geographical areas over which the species extends,—certainly the first basis upon which a knowledge of the geographical distribution of the families and genera can be founded. But at that time the much more limited knowledge of specific forms obliged him to establish genera of too great extent; and in consequence he could not bring, in a more or less accordant correspondence with a certain province of the earth's surface, those genera which are really peculiar to such a separated district. And although that sketch, by which the first volume of Schlegel's 'Essai' is concluded, deserves the more admiration, as this part of the science, not previously cultivated, was raised by him at once to a degree of philosophical view adequate to his system: it must share the destiny of every such attempt, when our knowledge of the fauna as well as of the geography is more advanced: many stated truths will hold good-a part or all the principles applied before will form the basis of the next attempt; but many other points will appear to be modified or wrong, and will be placed with other results. For a better

understanding, one may compare my view of the geographical distribution of Reptiles in Africa with that of Schlegel. In this attempt I have maintained his idea of species, but I think I have gained more general and more true results by more limited genera (far different from those "subgenera," which are in fact species) and by a modified view of the geographical regions. But we now also want far more correct information concerning the genera and

families, before we arrive at very satisfactory conclusions.

There is, in the first place, a much greater disproportion in the distribution of Reptiles over the different regions, with respect to the number of genera and species, as well as to individuals. Amphibian life is entirely different from that of the higher animals, being exposed to the slightest modifications of external physical influences; and there are again great differences among the Reptiles Let us compare some of our Snakes with Batrathemselves. chians, in a few instances only. Frogs and Toads are found on the Shetlands, whilst Vipera berus, the most northern Snake, is already scarce in the north of Scotland. Rana temporaria is met with in the Alps round lakes, near the region of eternal snow, which are nine months covered with ice; whilst Vipera berus reaches only to the height of 5000 feet in the Alps, and of 7000 in the Pyrenees. A Triton or a Frog being frozen in water will awake to its former life, if the water is gradually thawed; I found myself that even the eggs of Rana temporaria, frozen in ice during seven hours, suffered no harm by it, and afterwards were developed. A Snake can only endure a much less degree of cold: even in the cold nights of summer it falls into the state of lethargy; it awakes late in the spring, when some Frogs and Tritons have already finished their propagation; it retires early into its recess in harvest while still the evenings resound with the vigorous croaking of the Tree-frogs and the bell-like clamour of Alytes obstetricans. Our European Snakes die generally, in captivity, during the winter, partly from want of food, partly by the cold nights. The eggs of our oviparous species are deposited during the hottest part of the year, requiring a high temperature for development. Further, though some accounts of Batrachians enclosed in cavities of the earth or trees may be exacgerated, the fact is stated by men whose knowledge and truth are beyond all doubt, that such animals live many years apparently without the supply of food necessary for preserving the energies of the vital functions *. Dr. A. Smith himself was an eye-witness how several specimens of Brachymerus fasciatus were found in a lethargic state in a hole of a tree, completely closed, conspicuously open before and grown together afterwards. Such a tenacity of life is never to be observed in a Snake: the higher the temperature the greater is the need of food; and a Snake having endured fasting during six or nine months always dies. Moreover, the tenacity of life in the Batrachians is proved by their power of reproduction, which never has

^{*} Cf. "Observations on the Common Toad, and on its long abstinence from food," by John Brown, Esq. (Ann. & Mag. Nat. Hist. 1842, vol. x. p. 180).

been observed in a Snake. If we add the fact that Snakes do not produce many eggs or young ones, that they are able to propagate only when several years old, that they incur continual dangers by their numerous enemies, and that they are deprived of the means of performing distant journeys, we must consider it as the natural consequence, that no species will spread so far as Batrachians. These are enabled to endure temporary physical disadvantages, to traverse localities without the regular supply for their life, and to make up yearly for the lost number by a numerous offspring. More or less confined to a fluid element, they are favoured by another agency for an easier spreading. But these facts are really applicable to a comparatively small number of species only; and the question why we do not find all these peculiarities equally exhibited in all the Batrachians or in a great part of them, is as difficult to be answered as why one species is richer of individuals than the other: but it is remarkable that just those species which are spread over the widest range are also those distinguished by an intensity of individuals.

On the other hand, we find Snakes almost entirely limited to the original locality of the individual: but if the individuals are restricted to the soil which gave them birth, the whole group, formed by such individuals, is likewise stationary; and if there be different creations, corresponding to the different natural divisions of the earth's surface, such a group as the Snakes must be best adapted for proving it, because here the agencies are wanting by which a species or a genus is spread over a larger part of the globe in the course of time, thus

becoming mixed with foreign forms.

After these preliminary remarks, I proceed to the special objects of our inquiry; and we shall then see what conclusions can be formed in comparison with those of the ornithologist*. According to the above-stated peculiarities of the life of Suakes, there is no cosmopolitan species, and we can find only a few examples where one and the same species extends over the borders of the neighbouring region (cf. p. 378, Naja haje, Echis carinata, Zamenis ventrimaculatus, and p. 385-386, some species ranging from the Nearctic region into the Neotropical, and vice versa). Among the genera we do not find one true cosmopolitan genus. Tropidonotus is one of those which have the widest range, a genus containing about thirty well-known species, each of which bears natural characters so conspicuous, that its position in the system is not to be mistaken: they are not to be found in the Æthiopian region only; they are truly called freshwater Snakes, following the course of the rivers and the borders of lakes. Some of the species (T. natrix, hydrus, quincunciatus, ordinatus, fasciatus) have a very wide range within the borders of its peculiar region. A few of the Asiatic species exhibit slight modifications of the general appearance of the genus (T. cerasogaster and vibakari).

^{*} As for the systematical denominations adopted, I refer to the 'Catalogue of Snakes' (Crotalidæ, Viperidæ, Hydridæ, Boidæ) by J. E. Gray, London, 1849, and to my Catalogue of Colubrine Snakes in the Collection of the British Museum, London, 1858.

The second genus, which may be almost called a cosmopolitan, is Coronella, being spread over the whole globe except the Indian region, where it is replaced by such modifications of the characters as to justify the separation of them into new genera-Simotes and Ablabes, sp. The latter, closely allied to Coronella, accompanies this genus, extending over all the regions, except over the Australian one. Thus, if I speak hereafter of cosmopolitan genera of Snakes, they are to be understood with the restrictions mentioned. The families of Snakes in the different systems are at present founded upon such general characters, that in most of them genera of some or of all the geographical regions are comprised; perhaps at some later period they will be limited to more contracted boundaries of less general characters, thus approaching more to the borders of the geographical regions. But for the present we cannot derive from them our deductions as to the primary creation of the natural regions of the earth's surface, as the ornithologist does; and we are obliged to confine our views to the genera: we have not even such families of Snakes as are peculiar to one of the two great geographical divisions, either to the old world or to the new, except those in which the characters of the family are identical with those of the single genus. This discrepancy between Ornithology and Herpetology may be caused by a different systematic treatment of the characters, and may be more reconciled together by time; but there will always remain forms common to the new and old world. Therefore it is not possible to give a list of Familia Neogeana and Familia Palaogeanæ (cf. Sclater, l. c. p. 133).

But I may here give an account of such genera as, I think, will still long remain examples of forms common to the new and old world (cosmopolitan genera excepted): they are Rhabdosoma, Coluber, Spilotes, Coryphodon, Cyclophis, Philodryas, Dipšas. I could add as many other genera; but I think such genera as Rhinostoma, Dryophis, &c. will be subdivided hereafter into two. Further, with regard to the aforesaid genera, the same observation as in Ornithology cannot be made, viz. that these are invariably genera belonging to temperate regions, disappearing entirely before we reach Tropical and Southern America. A part of the members of these genera are peculiar to Neotropical (Tropical America) Ophidio-fauna; a part reaches the Tropics in the old world, and a third part belongs to the

temperate portions of both hemispheres.

Taking the amount of similarity or dissimilarity of ornithic life as a guide, Mr. Sclater states the following primary divisions of the earth's surface:—

I. Palæarctic Region (Regio Palæarctica).

Extent.— Africa, north of the Atlas; Europe; Asia Minor; Persia and Asia generally, north of the Himalaya Range, upper part of the Himalaya Range (?); Northern China, Japan, and the Aleutian Islands. Approximate area of 14,000,000 square miles.

II. Æthiopian or Western Palæotropical Region (Regio Æthiopica).

Extent.—Africa, south of the Atlas Range; Madagascar; Bourbon; Mauritius; Socotra, and probably Arabia up to the Persian Gulf, south of 30° N. lat. Approximate area of 12,000,000 square miles.

III. Indian or Middle Palæotropical Region (Regio Indica).

Extent.—India and Asia generally, south of the Himalayas; Ceylon; Burmah, Malacca, and Southern China; Philippines; Borneo; Java; Sumatra, and adjacent islands. An area of perhaps 4,000,000 square miles.

IV. Australian or Eastern Palæotropical Region (Regio Australiana).

Extent.—Papua and adjacent islands; Australia; Tasmania and Pacific Islands. An area of perhaps 3,000,000 square miles.

V. Nearctic or North American Region (Regio Nearctica).

Extent. — Greenland and North America, down to centre of Mexico. Area of perhaps 6,500,000 square miles.

VI. Neotropical or South American Region (Regio Neotropica).

Extent.—West India Islands; Southern Mexico; Central America, and whole of South America; Galapagos Islands; Falkland Islands. Estimated area of about 5,500,000 square miles.

The notices devoted to each region will show how great the conformity is, which this most natural division and the definition of the limits of the regions find in Herpetology.

I. Palæarctic Regio (Regio Palæarctica).

Characteristic forms.—(Calamaria?) coronella, (Tachymenis?) vivax, (Simotes?) diadema, Rhinechis, Zamenis, Chorisodon, Cœlopeltis, Eryx, Pelias, Vipera, Echis, Cerastes.

Form common with India .- Trigonocephalus.

This region is at once distinguished by the small number of generic forms and of species; great variety of amphibian life is produced only by the sun of the Tropics, and dependent upon a similar variety of the vegetative world. Where the soil is covered with social plants, either trees or grasses, there we find an equal uniformity in the life of Reptiles, which uniformity is still more manifest in temperate zones.

North of the 62° N. L. no Snake has hitherto been found; and thus the forty species which live within the boundaries of this region are very unequally distributed over an area of 14,000,000 square miles. We have on the average a single species to each 350,000 square miles. All species are of a small size, dusky colour, and of a timid disposition; far the greatest part belongs to the *Colubrina*;

their ratio to the Boina being that of 20:1, and to the Viperina of

The identity of the creation in the different provinces of this region may be represented by the following examples, which will forcibly show the reason why I unite the Æthiopian shores of the Mediterranean especially with this region, instead of considering Spain and Portugal as a part approximate more to Africa than to Europe, as Schlegel did. • Eryx jaculus may be traced from the eastern half of the shores of the Mediterranean, through the temperate part of Asia, into the south of Siberia; Tachymenis vivax from Egypt northwards to Hungary. Further, the genus Zamenis is one of the most characteristic types of this region, -Z. atrovirens being spread along the northern shores of the Mediterranean, Z. Cliffordii along the southern ones, Z. hippocrepis and dahlii going entirely round this inland sea, Z. ventrimaculatus reaching from Egypt through Kurdistan to the south of the Himalaya, and, finally, Z. caudolineatus being a native of Kurdistan. Coronella austriaca, more common in the parts north of the Alps, is replaced in the south by C. girundica, in the north of Africa by C. cucullata. Tropidonotus natrix, reaching into the heart of northern Asia, is represented in North Africa by Trop. viperinus. Trop. hydrus appears to range still further towards the west of Asia. Coluber quadrilineatus, common on the northern shores of the Mediterranean and on its eastern islands, is again found in the north of China. Cælopeltis, a true native of northern Africa, is found in the Pyrenean peninsula. Pelias berus inhabits Ireland, Scotland, England, Norway, Sweden, and all the central parts of Europe, and is again found on the shores of the Lake of Baikal.

The viperine snakes of this region exhibit generic differences on the north and south of the Mediterranean, -on the former being found Pelias and Vipera, on the latter Echis and Cerastes. But the above-stated facts sufficiently show that the lower part of Egypt is to be united with this region as well as Algiers; and I wonder that Mr. Sclater leaves it uncertain whether he includes that part of Egypt or not. A few true African forms intrude themselves into the African parts of the region; Echidna atricauda and mauritanica are found in Algiers, and Naja haje, following in many varieties the course of the African rivers, comes down with the Nile and reaches That Echis carinata, more frequently met with in the East Indian continent, is also found in Egypt, is a curious fact stated by Duméril and Bibron (vii. p. 1448); and as Schlegel mentions it as being found also in the deserts south of the Caspian Sea, it quite corresponds to the aforesaid range of Zamenis ventrimaculatus.

The genus Trigonocephalus, which has its focus in the Indian region, is curiously enough represented by a single species (T. halys) in the southern parts of Siberia, reaching into the north of the Caspian sea. Thus of all the genera peculiar to the Indian region, Trigonocephalus advances furthest northward, emitting moreover another species (T. Blomhoffii) to Japan.

Japan, that outpost of the palæarctic region, is not in the same way peopled with palæarctic snakes as we find it with palæarctic

forms of other parts of the animal kingdom. As for the Herpetology in general, it is truly a debateable ground between Palæotropical and Indian Amphibio-fauna: but as for the *Ophidii*, it belongs entirely to the Indian region; for the present, at least, we do not know one Japanese snake found also in the Palæarctic region, or even only belonging to one of its peculiar generic forms.

H. Æthiopian or Western Palæotropical Region.

Characteristic forms.—Hortulia, Sanzinia, Pelophilus, Casarea, Calabaria. Homalosoma, Psammophylax, Heteronotus, Prosymna, Meizodon, Psammophis, Dasypeltis, Bucephalus, Hapsidophrys, Langaha, Simocephalus, Lamprophis, Alopevion, Lycophidion, Metoporhina, Boodon, Holuropholis, Naja haje, Cyrtophis, Elaps! hygiæ, Dendraspis, Causus, Sepedon, Atractaspis, Clotho.

Forms common with other regions .- Philodryas, Chrysopeleu,

Ahætulla, Dryophis, Leptodeira, Dipsas, Dipsadoboa.

. We now enter a tropical region, and immediately find forms of gigantic magnitude, variety, and vivacity of coloration, and a great multiplication of the number of generic forms and of species, although only the southern part of this truly continental region has been examined in a satisfactory manner; it is not many years since the borders of Western and of part of Eastern Africa were searched through; and the great enrichment of zoological knowledge, produced by this first progress, promises the most extensive results to those daring attempts to cross a continent which, instead of being a continuous burning desert, contains a new world of vegetable and animal An enumeration of the reptiles of Western Africa, by Dr. Gray (see ante, page 155 et seq.), shows how greatly our knowledge of the Herpetology of that country has been enlarged in the lapse of a few years. Thus I hope that the ratio here given of the geographical area and distribution of the Ophidians will only be a proof of the distance between our present knowledge and that of the coming decennium. Taking the area of this region at 12,000,000 square miles, and the number of species of Snakes contained therein at 80, we have on the average a single species to each 150,000 square miles, or $2\frac{1}{3}$ species to the same area for which we found only one in the palæarctic region.

The number of Colubrina is again predominant, but is to that of the Boina only as 8:1, and to that of the Viperina as 11:1; the proportional number of the Boina therefore is enlarged, that of the Viperina diminished. We must observe, first, as a peculiarity of this region, that at present there is not one species known of the genus Tropidonotus. Schlegel believed he found its representative in Dasypeltis scaber; but a snake living on trees, devouring eggs of birds, the shells of which it breaks by gular teeth, with irregular arrangement of the lateral scales, is a form quite peculiar in itself, and quite peculiar to this region. Highly interesting is the fact, that more than one-third of the genera live on trees; which ratio is never met with in any of the other regions: there we find a member

of the family of Lycodontidæ, a family which contains either Groundsnakes, or forms only slightly approaching to that structure which indicates the capability of climbing trees, entirely transformed into a very Tree-snake (Simocephalus). There we find Tree-snakes with perforated fangs in front (Dendraspis). The African species of Naja (N. haje), so closely allied to the Indian Cobra de Capello, is to be considered as a Tree-snake as well as Ground-snake, whilst N. tripudians never appears to climb trees. But the Indian and the African species offer a similar series of varieties, and it would be, in many cases, very difficult to assign one of those varieties, if of unknown origin, to the right species, without the single character of the sixth upper labial shield. The question whether those varieties really are species is not yet decided. Every large collection should gather of both forms as many specimens as possible, with the most accurate accounts of their localities. There are about 70 specimens in the collection of the British Museum; but even by this number I was not enabled to distinguish separate species within accurately limited boundaries.

Another peculiarity of this region is the abundance of Snakes provided with longer front teeth, or Lycodontidæ; and it agrees also in this respect with India: in fact, the western and middle palæotropical regions equally partake of this family, each region producing a form with entire subcaudal plates. Venomous Colubrina occupy here a great part among the Ophidia, a greater one than the true Viperina; and they also exhibit quite a peculiar group, namely such Colubrina as are provided with permanently erect and perforated fangs (Dendraspis, Atractaspis). As our knowledge of the whole region is very limited, so also is the case with the large island connected with it, Madagascar. The following Snakes are known belonging to its fauna:—

Sanzinia. Pelophilus.
Heterurus gaimardii and arctifasciatus.
Psammophis sibilans, var.
(Herpetodryas bernierii. Isle de France).
Herpetodryas quadrilineatus.
Enicognathus rhodogaster.
Philodryas miniatus and goudotii.
Ahætulla lateralis. Langaha.

None of these Snakes, except *Psam. sibilans*, have been found on the continent of this region, or in any other part of the globe; and it may be a question, as already suggested by Schlegel, whether such a separate and peculiar fauna as that of Madagascar might not form ground for establishing a separate region, small for the geographical area, rich for its animal and vegetative life, if the still hidden parts should prove to be as peculiar as that which we know. *Sanzinia*, *Pelophilus*, *Langaha* form genera not represented by other species in other provinces.—If we look at the forms common with other regions, we find them all to be Tree-snakes, having the allied species spread over the tropical regions in the west or east.

III. Indian or Middle Palæotropicul Region (Regio Indica).

Characteristic forms.—Chersydrus, Acrochordus, Xenodermus, Python, Cliftia, Cusoria, Gonyylophis, Clothonia, Cylindrophis. Calamaria, Rhabdion, Brachyorrhos, Aspidura, Haplocercus, Elapoidis, Truchischium, Oligodon, Simotes, Ferania, Homalopsis, Phytolopsis, Tropidophis, Hypsirhina, Fordonia, Raclitia, Miralia, Xenodon (with keeled scales), Gonyosoma, Euophrys, Psammodynastes, Passerita, Leptognathus? indicus, Amblycephulus, Pareas, Hologerrhum, Lycodon, Tetragonosoma, Leptorhyton, Ophites, Cercaspis, Cyclocorus, Hamadryas, Bungarus, Naja tripudians, Elaps (with thirteen rows of scales). Hydride, Trimesurus, Parias, Megæra, Atropos, Trigonocephalas, Daboia (except D. xanthina, Gray).

Forms common with other regions.—Rhabdosoma, Cerberus, Coluber, Elaphis, Spilotes, Coryphodon, Chrysopelea, Dendrophis,

Dryophis, Eudipsas, Dipsas, Dipsadomorphus, Echis.

Whether the Indian region really is richer in peculiar generic and specific forms than the African one, or whether this difference is caused only by our more extended knowledge of the former, the future will show; for the present it is not even rivalled by the South American region: for taking the area of the Indian region at 4,000,000 square miles and the number of species of Snakes at 240, we have on the average a single species to each 17,000 square miles, or 21 species to the same area for which we found only one species in the palearctic region, and 9 for the same area in the Æthiopian. The ratio between the different sections of the Snakes, shows that, in comparison with Africa, the relative number of Boina is diminished, their ratio to the Colubrina being =1:12, but that of the Viperine Snakes has as much enlarged as the absolute one: each seventh species belongs to this truly venomous section (1:6). Quite a new form of snakes enters into this fauna—the Hydridæ: organized for living in the sea, they are seldom found on the coasts, and we do not yet know whether they approach the heach occasionally, or when obliged by certain physiological functions. But being constant inhabitants of the sea, they are endowed with active as well as with passive locomotion, to enable them to traverse greater distances than the snakes living on dry ground; and therefore it is not to be wondered at that we find not only the section in general, but the single species spread far beyond its actual native ground—namely the sea between the southern coast of China and the northern one of New Holland-and extending to the south of the Australian region, and far between the tropical islands of the Pacific. A certain proximity to land appears to be necessary for their life, as they are never found in those wide marine spaces which are void of islands, not being able by traversing them to spread into the Neotropical or Ethiopian regions *; and thus they

^{*} During the printing of this paper, I first heard of Sea-snakes seen near the western shores of America. They were observed in considerable numbers by M. Sallé and Mr. Salvin, at different times, from steamers crossing the Bay of

may be brought as properly as marine birds into the statement of the ratio between the number of species and the area of dry land. A second form, quite peculiar to this region, are Snakes covered with granular tubercles, Chersydrus, Acrochordus, Xenodermus; without being venomous, they approach to the Hydridæ by the genus Chersydrus, an inhabitant of rivers and their mouths, and with an organization like that of true Sea-snakes. As the family of the Lycodontidæ is to be assigned to the Indian and African region, each exhibiting different genera, so that of the Calamaridæ is divided in the same way between the neotropical and this region; whereas Homalosoma and two species of Rhinostoma perhaps afterwards may be separated from this family. The above-mentioned genera of Calamaridae are very characteristic, and the very aberrant forms which abound in India are here represented by a genus of this family having no palatine teeth. Those intermediate forms between the well-proportioned structure of the family of Colubridæ and the excessively slender one of the true Treesnakes, which I unite in one family of Dryadidæ, and which are so common in the Neotropical region, are scarcely represented by some species of Cyclophis and Gonyosoma. The genus Ahatulla is here represented by Dendrophis—in one species (D. picta) extending to New Guinea, in another (D. punctulata) to Australia. Dryophis is found in the Neotropical region as well as in the Indian one, but the species of both regions differ in dentition; the African species (D. Kirtlandii) agrees with the South American ones; finally, Passerita is only limited between the boundaries of the East Indies. If we exclude the Hydrida, the number of venomous Colubrina is far surpassed by that of the Viperina, and all the latter exhibit the peculiarity of having a pit on the side of the face, which is also found in the representatives of the New World, not in those of Africa. Cevlon offers a remarkable exception, producing a form without such a pit.

Among those large islands which are connected with the Middle Palæotropical region, none offer forms so different from those of the continent and the other islands as Ceylon: it might be considered the Madagascar of the Indian region. We not only find there peculiar genera and species, not again to be recognized in other parts, but even many of the common species exhibit such remarkable varieties, as to afford ample means for creating new nominal species.

1. Calamaria and Elaps are not represented in this island.

2. The following species are common to Ceylon and the other parts of the region, the Ceylonese specimens exhibiting no remarkable variation:—Simotes russellii, Coryphod. blumenbachii, Ablabes collaris, Chrysopelea ornuta, Dendrophis picta, Tropidonot. stolatus, Lycodon aulicus, Naja tripudians.

3. Ceylonese specimens of the following species always exhibit one and the same variation:—Simotes purpurascens, Tropidonotus

Panama, and were about the size of an eel. I have not the slightest reason to doubt the credibility of the observers; but as long as we have not obtained them, it will always be a question whether the animals seen are Snakes or not.

quincunciatus (two Ceylonese varieties), Tropidonotus chrysargos,

Passerita mycterizans, Bungarus fasciatus.

4. The following species are peculiar to Ceylon, but representatives of the genera are found in other parts of this region:—Cylindrophis maculatu, Oligodon sublineatus, Cynophis helena (appears to be the representative of Elaphis subradiatus), Cyclophis calumuria, Dipsadomorphus ceylonensis (is the representative of D. trigonatus), Trimesurus ceylonensis and nigro-marginatus, Megæra trigonocephala, Trigonocephalus hypnalis, Daboia elegans.

5. Finally, the following genera, exhibiting entire subcaudal plates,

are peculiar to Ceylon: - Aspidura, Haplocercus, Cercuspis.

If we look at the forms of this region, common with other ones, we see that most of them belong to the two genera of Schlegel's Coluber and Dipsas. The separation of the former into smaller natural genera has not yet been effected in such a way as to satisfy the systematist; and therefore it is the less fit for a consideration of its geographical distribution (genus Zamenis excepted). Nearly the same is the case with the genus Dipsas; and even if we separate single forms more aberrant from the general type, there remain a great many species which, comprised in one genus, do not give us the idea of a cosmopolitan genus, but of a "tropicopolitan." Species of Rhabdosoma are found in the Ncotropical, a single species of Cerberus and Dendrophis in the eastern Palæotropical region; the geographical distribution of Dryophis and Echis has been stated above.

I may add a few words to prove what I have before mentioned, viz. that the Snakes of Japan belong to the fauna of the Indian region. The following species are known from these islands *:—

1. Tropidonotus tigrinus, and

2. T. Vibakari belong to a cosmopolitan genus; but the former, being also found near Ningpo in China, belongs to a group of this genus, which is formed solely by natives of India; and the second species is the single type of another peculiar group (see Catal. of Colubr. p. 60).

3. Coluber conspicillatus, .

4. Elaphis quadrivirgatus, and

5. Elaphis virgatus, exhibit not only a remarkable similarity in general habits, and in the system of coloration, with other true East Indian Snakes (Elaphis subradiatus, &c.), but the two latter are also found on the Indian continent, in China, south of the Yellow River.

6. Trigonocephalus Blomhoffii belongs to a genns with four species

in the East Indies and one in the northern parts of Asia.

How greatly different the view gained by a consideration of the geographical distribution of the Batrachians is, we shall see in the Second Part of this paper. Our knowledge of the Herpetology of Celebes is yet too limited to allow a satisfactory attempt to compare its fauna with that of other parts.

^{*} Cf. Schlegel, 'Fanna Japonica '-" Reptiles."

IV. Australian or Eastern Palæotropical Region (Regio Australiana.)

Characteristic forms.—Morelia, Liasis, Nardoa, Enygrus, Bolyeria, Myron, Glyphodon, Diemansia, Hoplocephalus, Pseudechis, Pseudonaja, Brachysoma, Vermicella, Acanthophis.

Forms common with other regions.—Cerberus, Dendrophis, Dipsas,

Hydridae.

What I have said in the beginning of my notices on the Æthiopian region I can as justly repeat respecting this part of the globe, the borders only of which are known to us; so that the proportionate numbers here given will be far from truth, and can be only considered to be proportionate to our present knowledge. If we allow 50 species as peculiar to this region, and take the area of dry land at 3,000,000 square miles, we have on the average a single species to each 60,000 square miles, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ species for the same area in the Æthiopian; but the Indian region is richer, giving $3\frac{1}{2}$ species for the

same area, in which we have only one in the Australian.

We find a peculiar character of this region in the ratio between the numbers of species in the different sections of the Snakes. Twothirds are venomous snakes—a disproportion not again to be found in any of the other regions, where the number of innocuous snakes always far predominates; secondly, two-thirds of the non-venomous snakes are Boidæ; thirdly, there is only one genus (Acanthophis antarctica) belonging to the tribe of Viperina, the whole number of the other venomous snakes being constituted by Colubrina with grooved fangs. We know only six non-venomous Colubrina from New Holland, two of which (Coronella australis and Tropidonotus picturatus) belong to cosmopolitan genera, the third (Dipsas fusca) to a tropicopolitan genus, the fourth and fifth (Dendrophis punctulata and Cerberus australis) to East Indian ones: for the sixth (Myron Richardsonii) a separate genus was established, but it is closely allied to the East Indian Hypsirhina. The genus Elaps, represented by a different form, Vermicella, is so far from being capable of being united with the East Indian forms, that it is nearer to those of the Neotropical region. Thus if we except three species and the Hydridæ, which are subjected to quite other physical conditions, we have in the Eastern Palæotropical region a fauna of Ophidians as widely different from the nearest one of the East Indies as from all the other ones. It must be mentioned, that there is no snake known for the present from New Zealand. I say, for the present: for not many years since a total absence of Serpents in all the numerous isles of the Pacific Ocean was believed in.

V. Nearctic or North American Region (Regio Nearctica).

Characteristic forms.—Charina, Wenona, Conopsis, Conocephalus, Carphophis, Osceola, Ninia, Lodia, Sonora, Rhinochilus, Tantilla, Simotes? coccineus, Ischnognathus, Helicops, Farancia, Dimades,

Abastor, Virginia, Contia, Pituophis, Cenchris, Crotalophorus, Uropsophus, Crotalus.

Forms common with other regions .- Heterodon, Coluber, Cory-

phodon, Herpetodryas, Cyclophis, Elaps.

There is some difficulty in stating the southern boundary of this region; the Tropical fauna advances along the Isthmus of Panama, and extending over the again expanding part of Southern Mexico, it is gradually mixed with the Arctic fauna. And in these parts the fanna of the same latitude is the more mixed on account of the great differences of the elevation above the level of the sea, and the resulting great variety of climate in a small space; but as the climate gradually assumes the tropical character, so do also the vegetative and animal life. Nevertheless we have in the New World two quite different creations, radiating from the system of the Mississippi in the north, and from that of the Amazon in the south; and in each of those smaller provinces situated on the boundary between both regions, it will be a question, whether the larger number of its species belongs to northern or southern forms. As far as we are able for the present to judge, the tropic of Cancer may be considered as the boundary. No Snake is to be found north of the 60° N. lat., in a latitude where in the Palæaretic region Pelias berus exists. But taking 6,500,000 square miles as the amount of the whole dry land in this region, and allowing seventy-five* species as peculiar to it, we have one species to every 87,000 square miles, or four species to the same area, for which we found only one in the Palæaretic region. Thus this region indicates a much greater degree of intensity of species than the Palæarctic region; but if it be stated that it surpasses also the Æthiopian region, this I consider as not an established fact, but only an appearance caused by the circumstance that North America has been much more fully explored than Africa. Even then, if we consider (according to Dr. Gray's system) Charina and Wenona to be Boidæ, the ratio of this section to the number of Colubrina is very small (1:18), the ratio between Viperina and Colubrina being large (1:5); in this respect this part of the fauna quite agrees with the same part of the Old World.

Among the non-venomous Colubrina the two families of Calamarida and Natricidae offer the most generic and specific forms. The type of Heterodon is a North American form; but there is also one

species to be found in South America.

Colubrina with grooved fangs in front can hardly be considered as pertaining to this region, only two species of Elaps reaching into the most southern parts. The Viperine Snakes are represented by most peculiar forms, all belonging to the family with a pit on each side of

^{*} Without summing up the number of all the North American species described since the publication of the 'Catalogue of North American Reptiles' by Baird and Girard, 1853, I only mention that they describe therein 119 species. What I think of such species is shown by the synonymy of the North American Snakes in my catalogue.

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the face: they exhibit all entire subcaudal shields (at least on the anterior part of the tail).

VI. Neotropical or South American Region (Regio Neotropica).

Characteristic forms.—†Epierates, Xiphosoma, †Corallus, †Boa, Eunectes, *Chilabothrius, *Ungalia, Tortrix, Streptophorus, Homalocranion, Elapomorphus, Elapocephalus, *Arrhyton, Liophis, Stenorhina, Erythrolamprus, *Hypsirhynchus, Xenodon (with smooth scales), Uranops, Hydrops, Hygina, *Gerarda, *Hipistes, Ficimia, †Dromicus, Psammophis? lineatus, Thamnodynastes, Dipsas? cenchoa, Rhinobothryum, Leptognathus, Tropidodipsas, Scytale, Oxyrhopus, *Elaps (with fifteen rows of scales), †Craspedocephalus, Lachesis.

Forms common with other regions.—Rhinostoma, Rhabdosoma, Tuchymenis, Tomodon, Heterodon, Spilotes, Coryphodon, †Herpetodryas, †Philodryas, †Ahætulla, †Dryophis, Leptodeira, Eudipsus,

Dipsadomorphus, Dipsadoboa.

If the number of species duly attributable to this region be reckoned at about 150, and its geographical area at 5,500,000 square miles, we have a single species to every 36,000 square miles, or nearly $2\frac{1}{2}$ species to the same area, for which we found in the northern region a single one. As for intensity of species, this region is far surpassed by the East Indies, exhibiting only half as many species for the same area, and therefore showing itself proportionally far less productive of snakes than of birds. This fact will be very near the truth, as we know nearly equal parts of both regions. In the ratio of the different sections of snakes, South America does not agree with any other region, showing a ratio between Boina and Colubrina = 1:8, and between Viperina and Colubrina=1:15. All the Boina have only a single row of subcaudal plates, whilst the other tropical regions exhibit such species with entire subcaudals as well as with tworowed. Among the Colubrine Snakes, it is rich especially in those intermediate forms without prominent characters, the systematical arrangement of which is far from being complete.

Another character of the Region is, that true Lycodontidæ are wanting: they are replaced by Scytale and Oxyrhopus, in many respects similar to the East Indian Lycodontidæ, and forming a connecting link between these and the Dipsadidæ. All the venomous Colubrina belong to the genus Elaps, different from the East Indian species by having fifteen rows of scales and another system of coloration; one or two species range into the southern parts of the former region. Finally, all the Viperina exhibit a pit on the side of the face, two-rowed subcaudal plates, and the head covered with scales, thus being more closely allied to the greater part of the East Indian genera than even to those forms which we meet with in North America. One Viperine Snake with a rattle, Crotalus horridus, ranges into this region; but being also found in the more northern parts, and having the other relations in North America, it must be reckoned

among those of the latter region.

Of the forms common with other regions there are found :-

1. In the Æthiopian region species of Rhinostoma, Philodryas, Ahætulla, Dryophis, Leptodeira, Dipsadoboa-in fact all the species belonging to these genera show severally, according to the different region, such different characters as may be herenfter considered to be generic characters, if they are again to be found in other species of the same region; and I wish therefore to point out a much greater difference between both regions than might appear by the number of forms mentioned as common. For instance, the South American species of Rhinostoma exhibit a posterior grooved tooth; in Rhinostoma cupreum of Africa I found the same tooth not grooved; if Rh. occipitale of Hallowell from Western Africa, or other species hereafter to be discovered, should prove to have also smooth teeth, I should consider it to be a character sufficient to separate the Neotropical species from those of the Western Palæotropical region. Not knowing the species of Philodryas from Madagascar, I refrain from giving my opinion in that respect.

2. In the Indian region species of Rhabdosoma, Tomodon, Spilotes, Coryphodon, Dryophis, Eudipsas, Dipsadomorphus,—I have already pointed out that South America exhibits in more than one respect similarities with the middle region of the Palæotropical ones; and thus, except those forms which are represented in both regions by different genera, we have two genera truly common to them, Rhabdosoma and Coryphodon. The other genera I reckon of the same account as those mentioned as common with the Æthiopian region.

3. In the Palæotropical region one species of Tachymenis.

4. In the Nearctic region species of Heterodon, Herpetodryas, Coryphodon. The first two genera are limited to the New World, one exhibiting more species in the northern part, the other more in the south.

The Ophidians decidedly show that the West Indies are referable to the Neotropical region only. Hardly one species * is common to them and to the Nearctic region, and only the genus Herpetodryas might be considered such. On the other hand, many Southern continental species are again found in the West Indies; and how many generic forms are common to both, the number of genera marked above with a cross (†) will represent. The genera peculiar to the West Indies, and marked with an asterisk (*), do not express a common peculiar character, and some of them are founded on relatively slight characters.

^{*} Hallowell mentions Ischnognathus dekayi as found in Jamaica (Proc. Ac. Nat. Sc. Philad. 1856, p. 237).

SCHEMA OPHIDIORUM DISTRIBUTIONIS GEOGRAPHICÆ.

ORBIS TERRARUM. CREATIO NEOGEANA.

CREATIO PALÆOGEANA.

14,000,000 square miles, Regio Palæarctica, 40 species, $=\frac{1}{350,000}$.

6,500,000 square miles,

75 species,

 $=\frac{1}{87,000}$.

Regio Nearctica,

4,000,000 square miles, Regio Indica, 240 species,

Regio Australiana, 3,000,000 square miles, 50 species,

5,500,000 square miles, Regio Neotropica, 150 species,

12,000,000 square miles, 80 species,

Regio Æthiopica,

The above Schema is brought to an accordance with Mr. Sclater's Schema of the geographical distribution of Birds; but in both schemes the calculations made as to the number of square miles to one species cannot be looked upon even as attempts at approximations in those regions, a part of which only has been explored by naturalists. Thus the large space of central Asia, between 250° and 300° W. long. and between 35° and 50° N. lat., is quite nuknown—a space of about 3,000,000 square miles, which cannot be justly taken into account; and then we should have a ratio of 1:275,000. In the Æthiopian and Australian region, at least two-thirds of the area mentioned being unknown, we should have on the average a single species to 50,000 square miles for the former, and to 20,000 square miles for the latter region. In this way we arrive at least at a more accurate idea of the series in which the regions follow one another, as to their respective richness in forms:—

1. Indian region 1: 17,000.

2. Australian region 1: 20,000 (instead of 1: 60,000).

3. South American region 1:36,000.

4. Æthiopian region 1:50,000 (instead of 1:150,000).

5. North American region 1:87,000.

6. Palæaretic region 1: 275,000 (instead of 1: 350,000).

Thus by the consideration of the geographical distribution of Snakes we are obliged to acknowledge the views of the primary divisions of the earth's surface given by Mr. Selater as those most natural. I have endeavoured always to state those facts which apparently contradict this view, as well as those which favour it; but, by stating the former, I intend rather to direct the attention of the systematist to such less satisfying results of his exertions, than to destroy the idea of primary ontological divisions. As, however, we do not know one species of Snakes extending fully over two regions, and as we find each region occupied by a majority of peculiar genera, we come to the inevitable deduction that these different forms of Snakes were created in the different parts of the world where they are now found; but it would be a too precipitate inference to maintain the same for all other species of the animal kingdom. As I said in the beginning of this paper, Snakes form a most stationary tribe among animals; but other animals are subjected to internal or external agencies by which they are necessarily spread, in a longer or shorter lapse of time, beyond their primary boundaries; and it is a great mistake, in such instances, not to admit the identity of species, even though it be modified into a climatic variety. How the Batrachians are related in this respect, and what are the most natural divisions of the earth's surface as to this part of the Reptiles, will be the subject of the Second Part of this paper.

PART II.

ON THE GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF BATRACHIANS.

In the accounts given of the geographical distribution of animals, we find only a few general statements in which divisions of the earth's surface are characterized for their Batrachio-fauna. The presence of tailed Batrachians in the northern parts of the globe, the scarcity of Batrachians in Africa, gigantic forms between the tropics, and the abundance of Tree-frogs in South America, form the general results of those attempts. The faunas of some provinces were most accurately composed; but I am not aware that such an attempt has been extended through all the single parts of this suborder. The Batrachians are better adapted than are Snakes to range over large spaces; and this is especially observed with some Batrachians of the northern temperate part of the globe. Rana esculenta, Bufo vulgaris, and Hyla arborea are spread over the whole space of Europe and Asia, belonging to the Palæarctic region; Cantor found them again south of Japan, on the Chinese island of Chusan. Rana temporaria reaches beyond even these parts, being equally spread over the temperate regions of the New World. But none of the species are to be called cosmopolitan; and the differences between the different creations are such, that we have not even a true cosmopolitan genus. In looking for genera with the widest range, we may mention Rana, Bufo, and Hyla—the same genera which exhibit also the widestspread species.

Bufo is wanting only in Australia; the most numerous and largest of its species are met with in Tropical America. Rana is entirely wanting in Australia, and represented in the most northern parts of Tropical America by a single species only; the East Indies and Africa produce most of the species, some from the former region being distinguished by their gigantic size, but rivalled by R. mugiens from N. America; some from the latter region being peculiar on account of very slender and long toes. Hyla is entirely wanting in the Æthiopian and Indian regions, and in the Arctic regions represented by only a few but widely-spread species,—Tropical America and Australia, on the other hand, producing an exceedingly great number of specific forms. Thus, in speaking of cosmopolitan genera in this paper, I mean those three genera severally, with the restrictions mentioned.

Such a difference, between the animal life of the New World and that of the Old, as pertains to other parts of the Animal Kingdom, is not to be observed in the Batrachians. Dissimilarity and similarity of the Batrachio-fauna depend upon the zones. Palæarctic and Nearetic regions resemble each other more than any third; the same is the case with Australia and South America; the Æthiopian region exhibits similarities with South America as well as with the East Indies, but more especially with the latter.

I. Palæarctic Region.

Characteristic forms.—Pelodytes, Discoylossus, Alytes, Pelobutes, Pombinutor, Sulamundru, Seiranotu, Pleurodes, Bradybutes, Ellip-

soglossa, Geotritou, Ouychodactylus, Tritou, Euproctus, Sieboldia, Proteus*.

Cosmopolitan genera excepted, we have only one genus common with another region—Polypedates.

We may assign to this region 15 species of tailless Batrachians and 30 of the *Urodela*, which gives on the average a single species to each 300,000 square miles. The region is distinguished by the production of a part of the tailed Batrachians, a group of the animal kingdom which must be considered peculiar to the Arctic regions both of the New and Old World+; and although the species of Urodeles of the New World must be considered as types of different genera, yet the families exhibit representatives in both the regions. Some of the species of Batrachians are known to be extremely local (Pelodytes punctatus, Pelobates cultripes, Sieboldia, Proteus); but other species and genera are spread over the whole space of this region, proving in the most striking way the natural extent of this primary division. There is not a single tailed Batrachian known from Tropical Africa; but north of the Atlas we find Salamandra maculosa and Pleurodes waltlii, both inhabitants of Europe, and also a peculiar species, Euproctus poireti. As far as we know the western parts of Asia, belonging to this region, we meet species of Batrachians with all the characters of the true inhabitants of Europe; and what forms we should find in the centre and in the eastern parts by a better knowledge of these countries, is easily to be inferred by a glance on the fauna of Batrachians of Japan. There we find :-

Rana rugosa.

— esculenta.

— temporaria.

Bufo vulgaris.

Polypedates schlegelii.
Hyla arborea.

Ellipsoylossa. Geotriton fuscus. Onychoductylus. Triton subcristatus. Sieboldia.

Of the twelve species of these islands, five are identical with species in Europe, and one (Triton subcristatus) belongs to a European genus. Three genera of Urodeles are peculiar to Japan, Sieboldia being more closely allied to Menopoma from America than to any other genus. Polypedates schlegelii is a single representative of an East Indian genus, species of which, however, are also met with in Madagascar. Thus we find in Japan a ground which is supplied from a tropical region with Snakes, and from an arctic one with Batrachians.

II. Ethiopian Region.

Characteristic forms .- Dactylethra, Tomopterna, Heteroylossa,

^{*} Respecting the new denominations, I refer to my 'Catalogue of Batrachia Salientia in the Collection of the British Museum,' which will shortly be published.

[†] I quite agree with those naturalists who think the characters of Cacilia and Lepidosiren sufficient for forming separate classes of Vertebrata.

Stenorhynchus, Arthroleptis, Schismaderma, Hemisus, Breviceps, Chiromantis, Hyperolius, Leptopelis, Brachymerus.

Forms common with other regions.—Cystignathus, Hylarana,

Polypedates.

There are nearly 60 species known, all belonging to the Anura, which number would give a single species for every 200,000 square miles, or for each 70,000 square miles if we are allowed to refer the number of species only to the area of the more- or less-known parts,-a ratio which shows the great progress of our knowledge during the last few years. This region was said to be especially poor in Tree-frogs; and the reason for this was an overstated poverty of trees. The genus Hyla is here replaced by Hyperolius as abundant in species as, or even proportionally more than Hyla: one species, Hyla aubryi, was believed to be a representative of true Hyla; but a closer examination has shown that even this species differs from it by having cylindrical diapophyses of the sacral vertebra, forming a separate genus, Leptopelis. If we add the other Æthiopian Batrachians living on trees, we find the number of the Platydactyla nearly one-half of that of the Oxydactyla—quite in accordance with the observation made on the Snakes of this region. There are so very few species of Batrachians known from Madagascar, that we are not yet enabled to compare its fauna of Batrachians with that of the continent; but, again, all are peculiar to this island.

III. Indian Region.

Characteristic forms.—Oxyglossus, Leptobrachium, Megalophrys, Ceratophryne, Asterophrys, Uperodon, Diplopelma, Kalophrynus, Ixalus, Rhacophorus, Micrhyla, Kaloula.

Forms common with other regions.—Hylarana, Polypedates,

Cornufer, Platymantis.

The Indian region, in comparison with the Æthopian, does not exhibit a greater abundance of Batrachians such as we found to be the case with Snakes. The number of species is nearly the same. This is the more to be wondered at as the climate of the East Indies might be supposed to be most adequate to the life of Anura, and most productive of specific as well as of generic forms and of individuals. Moreover, the East Indies are comparatively well known; and the collection of the British Museum contains such a complete series of East Indian Batrachians, as considerably to increase the number of the species formerly known. But nevertheless the fact appears to be, that this region is excessively productive of individuals (especially of certain species, as in Snakes), but that it is not in the same way rich in generic, and still less in specific forms. There is some resemblance in this respect to the Palæarctic region. We may state 60 as the number of species, which gives a single species to every 66,000 square miles.

All the Batrachians belong to the *Opisthoglossa*, not the half of which are *Platydactyla*. The true *Hyla* are wanting, and, as in Africa, replaced by genera without dilated processes of the sacral ver-

tebra. Ceylon is comparatively rich in species; but as in general the Batrachians are adapted for spreading over a much greater space than other reptiles are, we do not find such a peculiar fauna of them in this island. The following species are known to be found in Ceylon:—

Rana kuhlii.

— vittigera.

— tigrina.

— hexadactyla.

— malaburica.

Bufo melanostictus.

*— kelaartii.

*Ixalus variabilis.

— pæcilopleurus.

— aurifasciatus.

Polyped. microtympanum.

— maculatus.

*— eques.

Kaloula pulchra.

Only those species marked with an asterisk are peculiar, the others exhibiting not even remarkable varieties.

IV. Australian Region.

Characteristic forms.—Myobatrachus, Limnodynastes, Chiroleptes, Heleioporus, Uperoleia, Pseudophryne, Chelydobatrachus, Litoria, Pelodryas.

Forms common with other regions.—Cystignathus, Hylarana,

Cornufer, Platymantis.

Of thirty species which are known to belong to this region, we have on the average a single species to each 100,000 square miles, and therefore only to each 33,000 square miles of the known part of Anstralia and its islands. Just the half of the species are Opistho-

glossa platydactyla.

Australia produces one Batrachian without a tongue; and if there should be known such a Batrachian from the Indian region, all the Aylossa would be equally distributed through the Tropical world, each part producing a peculiar type, viz. Africa the genus Dactylethra, South America the genus Pipa, Australia that of Myobatrachus. Secondly, this region is distinguished by the total absence of true Ranidæ and Bufonidæ. Among other characteristic forms, Pelodryas especially deserves to be mentioned, representing the genus Phyllomedusa of the New World, but distinguished by a web between the toes. Hylarana extends in one variety of H. erythræa to the islands of the Pacific (S. Christoval); but the geographical distribution of this genus is far from being known. On Cystignathus, see the notice given in the sixth Region. Finally, Cornufer and Platymantis respectively are known by two species, one of which belongs to islands of the Indian Archipelago, and the other to some of the Pacific. Thus the Bratrachio-fauna of this region, though offering well-distinguished generic forms, does not exhibit characters so general that a peculiarity of the whole could be expressed as we found At present there is not one Batrachian known from it with Snakes. New Zealand.

V. Nearctic Region.

Characteristic forms.—Scaphiopus, Acris, Pseudacris, Notophthalmus, Taricha, Xiphonura, Ambystoma, Cylindrosoma, Desmognathus, Desmodactylus, Batrachoseps, Spelerpes, Œdipus, Ensatina, Axolotes, Protonopsis, Amphiuma, Menobranchus, Siren, Pseudobranchus.

Forms common with other regions.—Cystignathus, Engystoma.

Schlegel, by trying to establish parallels between North and South America, was, I think, unfortunate in looking for respective representatives of both regions: parallels may be established between the Palæarctic and Nearctic region which are far more true and inter-

esting.

If we allow 20 species of Anura and 50 of Urodela for this region, we have on an average one species to every 90,000 square miles, or about three species for the same area for which we found only one in the Palæaretic region. This greater abundance is due to a greater number of Anura as well as of Urodela; but if the Nearctic region has three times as many Anura as the Palæaretic in proportion to its area, it yet produces four times as many Urodela.

By repeated examinations of a great number of specimens I have convinced myself that the North American frog, called Rana sylvatica, does not form a distinct species from the Rana temporaria of the Old World. It is true that there may be found more differences than those of colour only, by examining a few specimens (for instance, in the size of tympanum); but if we look to a greater number of specimens, and compare them especially with those from the eastern parts of Asia, even those differences will be found to be levelled. Among those species which are the most common we always find the greatest variations in form and colour. Among the European specimens themselves were found greater differences than those between European and American ones; and naturalists were induced to establish several species even for the European forms. tremes of the variety Rana oxurhina might be taken at the first glance for Rana esculenta; but on comparing them with other specimens of the same locality, we soon come to the point where it is impossible to decide to what form the specimen belongs. Likewise any naturalist, before whom might be placed one of the abovementioned specimens from Eastern Asia, would be at a loss to determine whether it were from the Old World or from the New. But are we at liberty to separate species or genera only according to the soil where the beings are born, without finding sufficient external or better anatomical characters? As the palæontologist endeavours to show what organic forms reappear in a stratum above or below auother, and where a new creation begins, so the zoologist must do in the horizontal distribution of animals on the earth's surface. Rana esculenta is represented by Rana halecina: specimens of the former exhibit sometimes quite the same coloration as that constantly found in R. halecina; but they invariably differ in the strne-

ture of the vocal organs. Bufo vulguris of the Old World is represented in North America by B. lentiginosus, in South America by B. chilensis-all sufficiently distinguished by the structure of the skull. Hyla arborea has its representative in H. euphorbiacea from the table-land of Central America. Thus we find one of our most common Anura to be the same in the New World, and three others represented by closely allied species. Our fifth common species, Bombinator igneus, is a more local species, and has no representative in North America. No species of the Urodelu is common to both regions, not even a genus; but in both we have not only such genera as are assigned by their structure either to living in water or on land, but also those intermediate forms which cannot be justly brought to one or the other category. Among the Urodela with free gills or gill-openings, Sieboldia exhibits at least such similarities with Menopoma, and Proteus such with Menobranchus, that they may be well considered as representing one another in the two regions. Thus we find the Nearetic and Palæaretic regions nearer allied in respect to Batrachio-fauna than they are to any other.

Cystignathus and Engystoma severally exhibit one species in the southern parts of North America, those genera belonging, in fact,

to the Tropics.

VI. Neotropic Region.

Characteristic forms.—Pipa, Pseudis, Calyptocephulus, Cyvlorhumphus, Pithecopsis, Limnocharis, Hylorhina, Pyxicephalus, Ceratophrys, Leiuperus, Pleurodema, Alsodes, Phryniscus, Brachycephalus, Rhinoderma, Atelopus, Engystoma, Otilophus, Elosia, Crossodactylus, Phyllobates, Hylodes, Nototrema, Opisthodelphys, Trachycephalus, Phyllomedusu, Hylaplesia, Rhinophrynus.

Form common with other regions.—Cystiynathus.

There is on the northern boundary of this region the Batrachiofauna mixed with Arctic forms, which is also the case in other parts of the animal kingdom, without taking into account those animals which, living on mountains, find by this vertical elevation the condition of a more northern climate. The absence of the genus Rana may be pointed out as a character of this region; one species, however, which I think I have recognized as R. Lecontii of Girard, reaches, together with Hyla versicolor, into the South of Mexico, and is found in localities with Bufo granulosus, Hylaplesia, and Rhinophrynus. Bufo chilensis ranges along the western coasts to California. But putting aside these examples, we meet, on entering Mexico, that Batrachio-fanna, by the abundance and peculiarity of which this region is widely distinguished beyond all the others. There we meet the greatest number of species of Bufo and Hyla, and those peculiar tree-frogs with a pouch on the back for their progeny; and there also we meet the single representative of the Proteroglossa. This region is the most productive in Batrachians, as we find the East Indies to be in Snakes. At least 110 species are known, giving one species for every 50,000 square miles, rather more than onehalf of them belonging to the Plutydactyla. South America produces one peculiar form of the Batrachians without tongue, Pipa—the more characteristic of this region, as it is, moreover, provided with pouches on the back, which are never met with in animals of any other part of the earth. If such a Batrachian were found in Australia (as I think will be realized), a strange point of analogy with the distribution of the Marsupial Mammals would be afforded.

We find in several families genera which are distinguished by peculiar development in the structure of certain bones of the skeleton, especially of the bones of the skull: Calyptocephalus, Ceratophrys, Cystignathus, Brachycephalus, Otilophus, Opisthodelphys, Trachycephalus. Numerous are those forms of Oxydactyla as well as of Platydactyla which have no web between the toes, and which are in general peculiar to tropical regions. Two-thirds of the genus of

Hyla are found in Tropical America.

The genus Cystignathus, which I have mentioned as common to several regions, has most of its species in South America. has separated a part of it by the name of Pleurodema, containing only South American species; I have done the same, uniting moreover a part of the Australian species under the name of Limnodynastes, whilst the other part, I find, has received a third generic name. But there remain still for Cystignathus South American and Æthiopian species; and these in fact, together with the separated species, form a very natural group-of genus or family-which is spread over the Tropics, but not met with in the East Indies. If, on review, we ask to which of the other Tropical regions the Batrachiofauna of South America is the most closely allied, we find that region to be Australia. Both regions agree in producing severally one Batrachian without tongue, and in producing Cystignathidae, Hylida, and Hylina with paratoids, which forms are all wanting in the East Indies; they also agree in the absence of the large genus Rana and of the Polypedatide*. On the other hand, there is hardly one point of view in which we could find a relation between the Australian and East Indian regions; and thus the fact appears to be established, that Australia offers far more similarity in the Batrachio-fauna with S. America than it does with the East Indies, on the western coasts as well as on the eastern, and also that the real intensity of species corresponds more with that in South America.

The West Indies exhibit a Batrachio-fauna the character of which quite agrees with that of S. America: there is, however, a greater separation of the species, a few only being identical with those of the continent; and the genus *Hylodes* may be considered nearly as pecu-

liar to these islands.

I now give a Schema similar to that for the Ophidians.

^{*} There is in each region a single species; in South America Elosia, in New Guinea Cornufer unicolor.

SCHEMA BATRACHIORUM DISTRIBUTIONIS GEOGRAPHICÆ.

33,000,000 square miles, $\begin{cases} 33,000,000 \text{ square miles,} \\ 200 \text{ species,} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{165,000}$. CREATIO PALÆOGEANA. 45,000,000 square miles, $\left.\right\} = \frac{1}{120,000}$. ORBIS TERRARUM. 6,500,000 square miles, CREATIO NEOGEANA. Regio Nearctica, 70 species, 12,000,000 square miles, } = 90,000

14,000,000 square miles, Regio Palæarctica, 45 species, $=\frac{1}{300,000}$.

4,000,000 square miles, Regio Indica, 60 species, $= \frac{1}{66,000}$ 12,000,000 square miles,

Regio Æthiopica,

60 species, = 200,000

5,500,000 square miles,

110 species,

= 50,000

Regio Neotropica,

Regio Australiana, 3,000,000 square miles, 30 species, $=\frac{1}{100,000}$. If we, finally, try to refer the number of species to the area of each region according as it is more or less known, the regions, according to their respective richness of forms, will stand thus:—

1. Australian region = 1:33,000.

Neotropical region = 1 : 50,000.
 Indian region = 1 : 66,000.

4. Æthiopian region = 1:70,000.

5. Nearctic region = 1 : 90,000.

6. Palæarctic region = 1:250,000.

2. Descriptions of Monohammus Bowringii, Batocera Una, and other Longicorn Coleoptera, apparently as yet unrecorded. By Adam White, Assistant, Zool. Depart. Brit. Mus.

(Annulosa, Pl. LIII.)

One of the most interesting Beetles found by John Bowring, Esq. in Hong-Kong is the very pretty species described below. Although Mr. Bowring has been for nearly fifteen years in that Chinese Island, and, as far as the management of immense commercial affairs would allow him, has been an active collector, he has only twice seen this curious Longicorn. It is somewhat allied to a small North Chinese species (Monohammus luridus) described by Mr. Pascoe; and to a North Indian species (Monohammus melanosticticus, White), in which there are five transverse bars of small black spots; and to one figured in 'Linn. Trans.' vol. xviii. t. 40. f. 7.

Insecti hujus nomen specificum est in houorem Domini Johannis Bowring, amici descriptoris, in Sinica insula Hong-Kong degentis. Valde amat Coleoptera. Collectio sua magnifica fere nationalis est.

Monohammus Bowringii, n. s. (Pl. LIII. fig. 1.)

M. breviusculus brevipilosus, pilis caput, thoracem, elytra corpusque subtus tegentibus pallide viridibus, subæruginosis; oculis nigerrimis; thorace supra nigro trimaculato; elytris maculis plurimis nigerrimis depilatis subquadratis in quatuor series transversas ordinatis, basi, inter humerum nigrum et scutellum gibbere subverrucato nigro; antennis nigris, articulis basi pilis brevibus cæruleis annulatis, corpore subtus immaculato, pedibus viridibus, tarsis tibiisque pilis cæruleis indutis.

Long. lin. $7-8\frac{1}{2}$. *Hab.* Hong-Kong.

Monohammus Championi, n. s. (Pl. LIII. fig. 2.)

M. subelongatulus miniaceo-sanguineus brevipilosus; thoracis spina macula laterali strigaque media longitudinali nigerrimis; elytris singulis muculis 9-14 nigris pilosis disperse maculutis, corpore subtus nigro in lateribus singulis miniaceo plagatis; antennis nigris, articulo primo (apice nigro excepto) miniaceo